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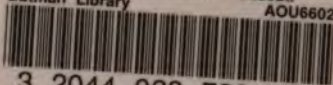
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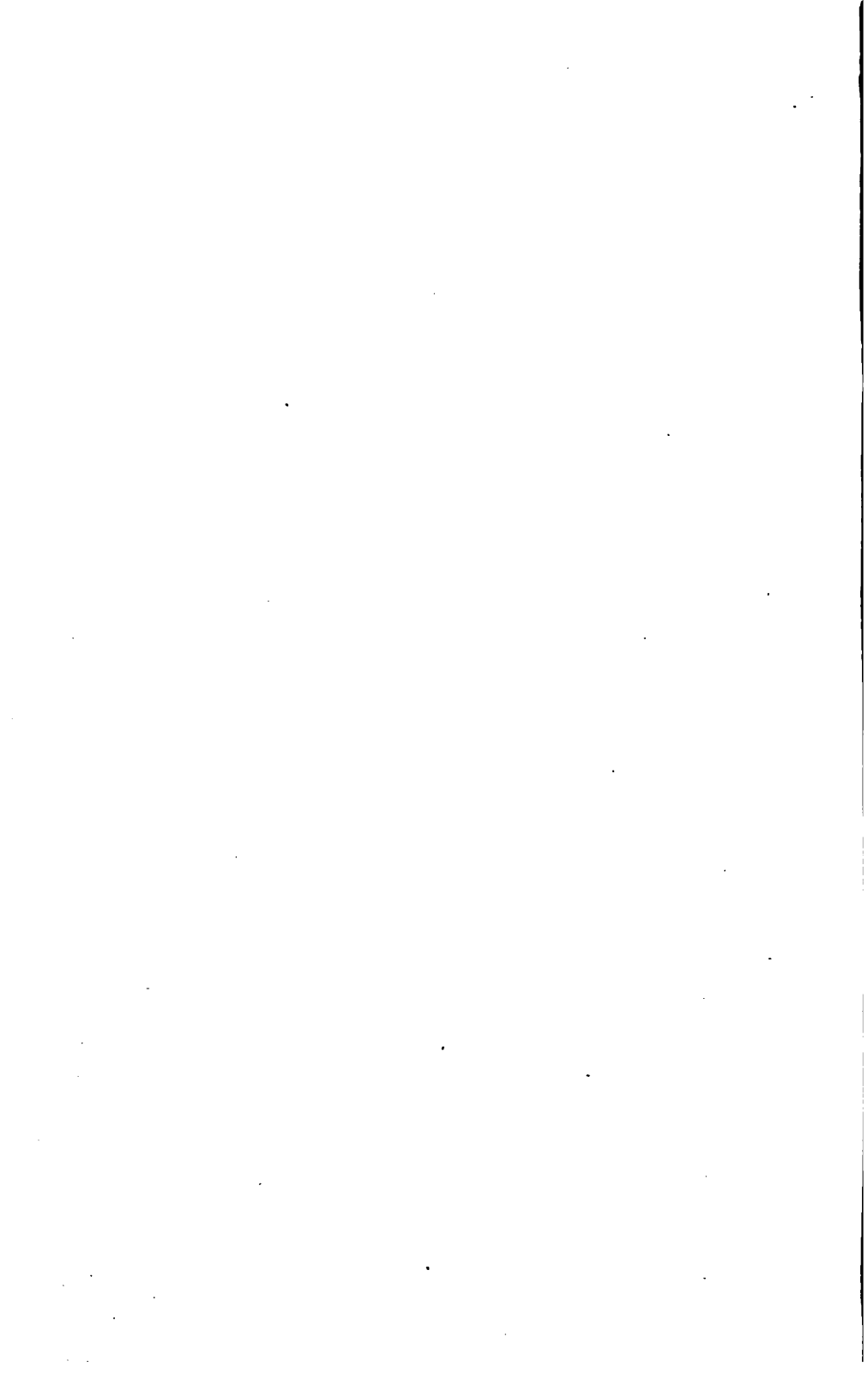
BY
THOMAS LLOYD HUMBERSTONE

B.Sc. (Lond.), A.R.C.S. (Lond.),
of the University of London Administrative Staff.

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1908







AN OLD ENDOWED SCHOOL—RUGBY SCHOOL.
Founded in 1567 by Lawrence Sheriff, Grocer, of London.

A
SHORT HISTORY
OF
NATIONAL EDUCATION
IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND

BY
THOMAS LLOYD HUMBERSTONE

B.Sc. (LOND.), A.B.C.S. (LOND.)
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF

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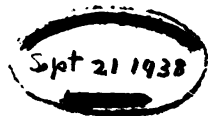
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FOREWORD

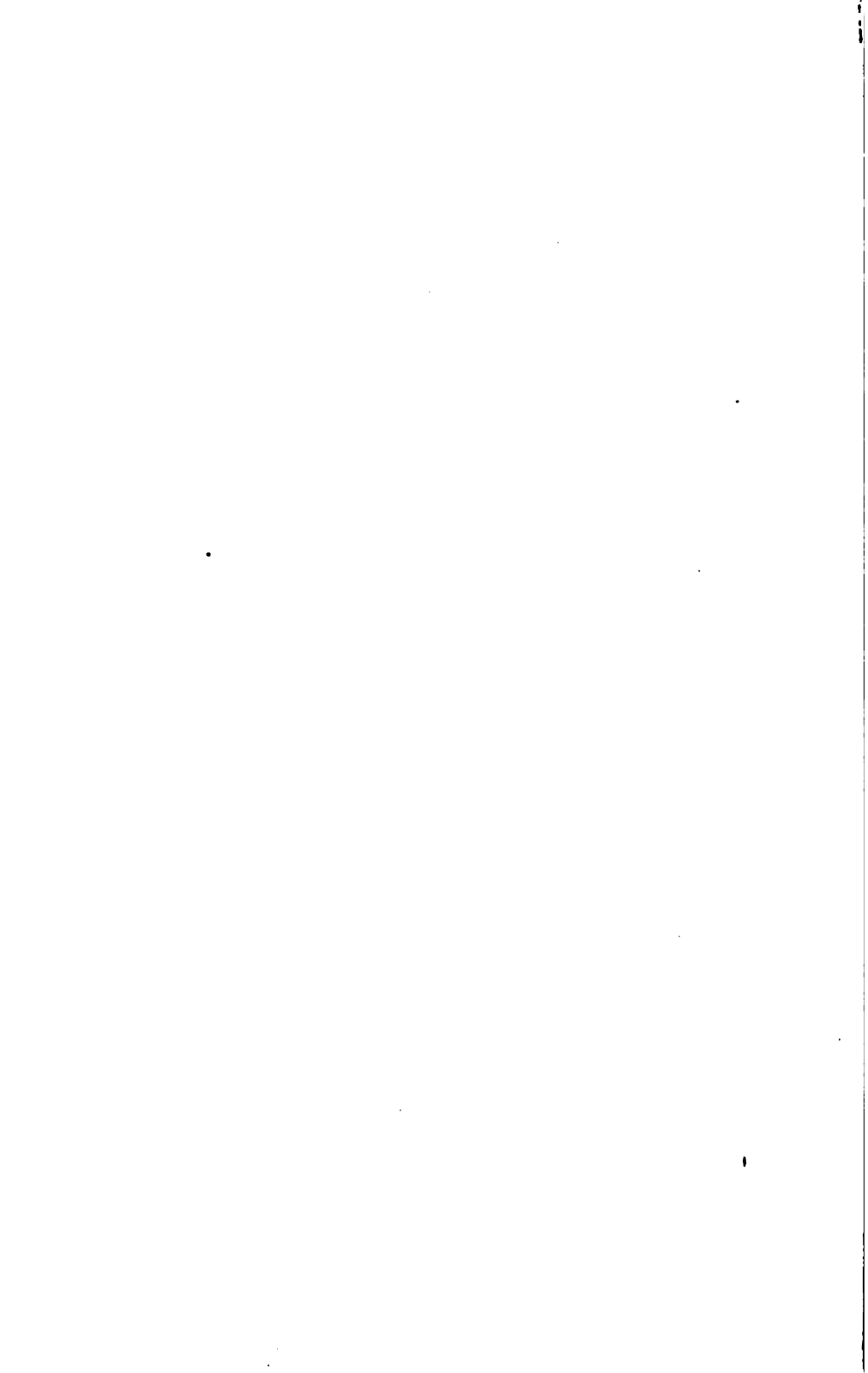
THE gathering together in one great and comprehensive collection examples and types of all the grades and various phases of National Education throughout the United Kingdom, as it exists to-day, seemed to me to offer a unique and most appropriate opportunity for presenting a short and concise history of its early beginnings and subsequent developments, so that the results of the present might be studied in the light of the past, and lessons for the future gathered therefrom.

With this idea I asked Mr. T. Ll. Humberstone to write the sketch which is here presented; and in order to point the contrast between the present and the past, some illustrations are embodied in the pamphlet, which will, I hope, render it both more interesting by the comparisons thus supplied and more useful for the student of education.

WILLIAM MATHER,

Chairman of the British Education Section.

June 1908.



A SHORT HISTORY
OF
NATIONAL EDUCATION
IN
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND

THERE is an element of truth in the opinion generally held that England was one of the last of the great nations to establish a national system of education, and there are some who even to-day are inclined to express the opinion that England is still without a national system of education. But it must not, therefore, be inferred that this country has always been backward in educational matters. The fact is that the English people have always devoted much thought and a large share of their wealth to the promotion of education, and so early as Reformation times there was a fairly complete system of Endowed Schools. The aims of these schools were religious and national ; they were designed to produce, in the words of the Oxford 'bidding' prayer, 'a succession of persons duly qualified to serve God in Church and State.' Mr. A. F. Leach, in his 'English Schools at the Reformation,' shows that more than

200 endowed Grammar schools flourished before the Reformation. Estimating the population of England in 1546 at two and a half millions and the number of Grammar schools at 300, it follows that there was one school for 8,300 people—a fairly adequate provision, which compares favourably with the state of things at that time in other European countries.

Several characteristics of these Endowed schools deserve mention, even in the briefest historical survey of English education. First, as Mr. Brougham pointed out in his speech in the House of Commons on May 8, 1818, they were founded—

‘not from the public policy, nor the bounty of those who in their day possessing princely revenues, were anxious to devote a portion of them for the benefit of mankind—not from those who, having amassed vast fortunes by public employment, were desirous of repaying in charity a little of what they had thus levied upon the State. It is far more frequently some tradesman of humble birth who, grateful for the education which had enabled him to acquire his wealth through honest industry, turned a portion of it from the claims of nearer connections to enable other helpless creatures in circumstances like his own to meet the struggle he himself had undergone.’

Many of the Endowed schools were free until comparatively recent times; but they were not intended for the poorest children, and were cer-

tainly not exclusively used by them. Nevertheless they had a democratic character; intelligent boys of the poorest classes were admitted and made their way to the Universities. As a rule these schools have always been 'secondary' schools—they did not profess to teach the elements of reading and writing. The statutes of St. Paul's School, founded by Dean Colet in 1509, may be quoted to illustrate these two points—and with special appropriateness, since the present school is the nearest great school to the Franco-British Exhibition. The statutes provide that

'there shall be taught in the scole children of all nations and contres indifferently, to the number of CLIII., according to the number of the seates in the scole; the master shall admit these children as they be offrid from tyme to tyme; but first se that they can saye the Catechyzon, and also that he can rede and write competently, else let him not be admitted in no wise.'

Elsewhere in the statutes there is evidence that the admission of poor children was contemplated—the entrance fees, for example, were to be given to 'the poor scoler . . . that swepeth the scole and kepeth the seates cleane.'

The foundation of these Endowed schools proves that, in the sixteenth and earlier centuries at any rate, England was setting an example to the world in her recognition of the national importance of education. Though it must be admitted that the Endowed schools have not always main-

tained a high standard of efficiency—in the eighteenth century they sank to a very low point—yet the country has reason to be grateful for their work. Shakespere acquired his ‘little Latin and less Greek’ in the Grammar School of Stratford-on-Avon, and John Milton was educated at St. Paul’s School; the genius of Isaac Newton was nurtured in Grantham Grammar School, and Charles Darwin was brought up in the classical, and, it must be added, somewhat uncongenial atmosphere of Shrewsbury School. The Endowed schools—including the few large schools, such as Eton, Harrow, Winchester, and Rugby, which have been given the curious and, to the foreigner, incomprehensible name of ‘public schools’—still form the core of English secondary education. In the last few years a great development of their scope and usefulness has taken place, and the older schools have been supplemented by a large number of High schools for girls and secondary schools established by local education authorities. If the present rate of progress continues, England may hope soon to have a complete and efficient system of secondary education.

THE 17TH AND 18TH CENTURIES

From the educational point of view, the seventeenth century was more fruitful in literature than in experiment. A good deal of sound educational doctrine found expression in the writings of Bacon, Milton, Locke, and Comenius. Dr. Busby’s work as Head Master of Westminster School (1640–1695) helped to create the character-

istics and traditions for which the English public schools have so long been famous. Several tentative efforts were made during the century towards the education of poor children. In this connection it is worth recording that Dr. Busby, who had in his youth received help from the Westminster Vestry towards the expense of his education, made a 'yearly Gift of Six Pounds' to the vestry for the instruction of the poor.

These efforts were co-ordinated and developed in the eighteenth century, especially by the establishment of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, founded in 1699 'to propagate Religion in the Plantations,'¹ to secure the pious and useful education of the Poor here at home, and to reclaim those that err in the fundamentals of Christianity.' The work of this Society soon attained large dimensions; by the year 1741 it had assisted the establishment of nearly 2,000 Charity schools in England and Wales, in which 40,000 children were taught. The Dissenters took an active part in the work. In 1728 Dr. Watts wrote 'An Essay towards the encouragement of Charity-schools, particularly those which are supported by Protestant Dissenters, for teaching the children of the poor to read and write; together with some apology for those schools which instruct them to write a plain hand and fit them for service, and for the meaner trades and labours of life; to which is prefixed an address to the supporters of these schools.' The Charity schools were designed for the benefit of poor children, and the masters were strictly enjoined not

¹ American Colonies.

to accept any money from the children's friends. It is remarkable that the schools fully recognised the claims of girls to education.

The curriculum both for boys and girls was fairly liberal. Among the rules for the conduct of the schools the following appears: 'As soon as the Boys can read competently well, the Master shall teach them to write a fair legible Hand, with the Grounds of Arithmetick, to fit them for Services and Apprentiships. *Note.* The Girls learn to read, etc., and generally to knit their Stockings and Gloves; to mark, sew; make and mend their Cloaths; and several learn to Write, and some to spin their Cloaths.' Unfortunately the qualifications of the teachers left much to be desired. A contemporary writer referred to them as 'wretches of both sexes' who had taken to teaching from a natural antipathy to harder work. Another defect of the schools arose from their charitable character, emphasized by means of annual Charity sermons and the special uniform worn by the children, which tended to produce a subservient spirit in the children and had a pauperising effect on their parents. With all their faults, however, the Charity schools helped to establish a tradition of popular education.

Before leaving the eighteenth century, mention must be made of the work of Robert Raikes, the founder of Sunday schools in 1784. Until well into the next century, a very large number of poor children owed all the instruction they were privileged to receive to the Sunday schools, which provided a secular as well as a religious education.

THE EDUCATIONAL REVIVAL

At the beginning of the nineteenth century it became evident that the existing schools of a public character—the Endowed schools, the Charity schools, and the Sunday schools—were entirely inadequate to provide education for the children of the poor, and there was certainly no reason to hope that private enterprise would supply the need for schools. The private schools which existed at this time were for the most part kept by indigent and ignorant ‘dames’ who ‘minded’ the children for a small weekly fee. As one of these dames expressed it: ‘It’s little they pays us, and it’s little we teaches them.’ The inadequacy of existing educational agencies, combined with a number of considerations of which something will be said immediately, brought about a great educational revival, the main facts of which may be briefly recorded.

With the great educational movement which set in with the nineteenth century the name of Joseph Lancaster must ever be honourably connected. In 1798 he ‘opened a school in St. George’s Fields for the education of the poor at a very reduced charge,’ and a few years later a new and larger free school was erected in the Borough Road. The history of Lancaster’s educational work is full of interest. He made the monitorial system so great a working success that he was able to teach a thousand children at a cost of a few shillings per child *per annum* with himself as the only adult teacher. He devised

many other means for reducing the cost of education; for example, he introduced the use of reading-sheets instead of reading-books, and slates instead of paper. In July, 1805, King George III. sent for Lancaster and expressed his wish 'that every poor child in my dominions should be taught to read the Bible'—a pronouncement which had an extraordinary effect in stimulating educational effort. Lancaster's activities soon extended beyond London, and his enthusiasm for education bore fruit in all parts of the country. In the year 1810 he travelled 8,775 miles, delivered 67 lectures attended by 28,480 people, and himself collected or was the means of collecting about £5,000, the money being used for building fifty schools accommodating 14,200 children. These figures throw a light on the ideas which then prevailed as to school building and equipment for poor children.

Lancaster soon found himself involved in financial difficulties, and he sought aid from two of his Quaker friends, William Corston and Joseph Fox. On January 22, 1808, a meeting of these three was held, when it was unanimously resolved :

‘That, with a humble reliance upon the blessing of Lord God Almighty and with a single eye to His glory; and with a view to benefit the British Empire; the persons present do constitute themselves a Society for the purpose of affording education, procuring employment, and as far as possible to furnish clothing to the children of the poorer subjects of the King George III.; and also to diffuse

the providential discovery of the vaccine inoculation, in order that at the same time they may be instrumental in the hands of Providence to preserve life from loathsome disease; and also by furnishing objects for the exercise of industry, to render life useful.'

The Society thus constituted after various changes assumed in 1814 the name of The British and Foreign School Society, Joseph Fox being the first Secretary, and William Allen the first Treasurer.

Lancaster was a firm believer in undenominational religious education, and the Bible was read in his school without note or comment. This system of unsectarian instruction, which was afterwards adopted by the British and Foreign School Society, was strongly opposed by Churchmen, who found vigorous champions in Mrs. Trimmer and Dr. Andrew Bell. As the result of these discussions, 'The National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church' was formed in 1811. The new Society soon became a more powerful organisation than its rival. Whatever may be one's opinion as to the place of religious instruction in education, the sacrifices made by the members of these two Societies cannot fail to provoke admiration. With the help of State grants they succeeded in establishing a vast system of voluntary schools, and the history of English education in the nineteenth century is closely bound up with their work.

PARLIAMENTARY ACTION

The inquiry will naturally be made whether the British Parliament took any part in these early struggles. In 1807 the question of national education was fully discussed in connection with Mr. Whitbread's Bill for providing parish schools, which passed successfully through the House of Commons but was rejected in the House of Lords.

The difficulties in the way of legislative action at that time were indeed insuperable. Some of the most enlightened members of both Houses of Parliament thought that the project of giving education to the labouring classes of the poor would be prejudicial to their morals and happiness, teaching them to despise their lot in life. It may here be remarked that, in the minds of many Englishmen at this time, the idea that popular education would cause discontent among the poor was closely associated with a 'genuine, hearty, craven fear' of all political change, induced by the appalling events of the French Revolution. Bagehot in his *Essay on the first Edinburgh Reviewers* refers to the period as the 'Eldonine' period, after the name of the Lord Chancellor, and says that it is the most difficult thing in the world to believe that Lord Eldon ever existed, so intense and comprehensive were his convictions of the danger of political reform.

To return to the discussion on Whitbread's Bill, it was felt that the expense of establishing parish schools would be enormous and incalculable,

and that the existing charities, if honestly administered, together with the work of voluntary agencies, would meet the educational needs of the time. This mistrust of State interference until the inability of voluntary agencies has been clearly demonstrated has always been characteristic of English political thought. It applied with special force to education : many of the most zealous educational reformers have had misgivings as to the wisdom of allowing the State to control such a spiritual process as education. The Archbishop of Canterbury in the House of Lords raised the religious difficulty ; he feared that the control of the minister would not be secured, and he trusted that their lordships' prudence would guard against innovation that might shake the foundation of their religion.

Enough has been said on the arguments in opposition to Whitbread's Bill to indicate that the decision of Parliament in 1807 was not taken without a good deal of earnest consideration. But the arguments advanced in and out of Parliament in favour of popular education, and the motives which inspired the educational reformers of the time, are of even greater interest and importance. Wise men saw that the events of the French Revolution formed perhaps the strongest justification for an attempt to raise the moral and intellectual standard of the people—that a contented and intelligent people were more easily governed than a brutal and ignorant populace. The view that popular education was one of the most effective means of improving social conditions was endorsed by many of the leading philosophers and

social reformers of the time—by Adam Smith in the 'Wealth of Nations,' by Malthus in his Essay on Population, by Robert Owen, the founder of Socialism, and many others. The same message came across the English Channel from the French philosophers, across the Atlantic from the founders of the American Constitution, and across the Tweed from the parish schools of Scotland. But abstract reasoning and lessons drawn from other countries had less effect than the object lesson of social conditions in England. The prevalence of crime called for some drastic remedy. As many as forty people were sometimes hanged in one day; forgery and blackmailing were rife; the highways outside London were infested with footpads, and the police, we are told, were unable to give protection even to shopkeepers and householders. The industrial revolution induced in the large towns a state of social disorder due to overcrowding, insanitary conditions, drunkenness, and vice in all its forms, which could not fail to suggest to public-minded men the imperative need for education. The plight of the children in mining and industrial centres was indeed pitiable. Employed for long hours in exhausting labour in mines and factories, they grew up to a stunted manhood without education or any other civilising influence. The apprenticeship system, established originally for very different conditions, was exploited for the supply of child labour, and a regular traffic in pauper children grew up between the parish authorities and the factory owners. Elizabeth Barrett Browning has given expression in some

poignant lines to the cry of these unhappy children :

‘For oh !’ say the children, ‘we are weary
And we cannot run or leap ;
If we cared for any meadows, it were merely
To drop down in them and sleep.

‘For all day we drag our burden tiring
Through the cold-dark underground :
Or, all day, we drive the wheels of iron
In the factories, round and round.’

Happily for our country, the children’s cry has not gone unheeded.

In 1816, Brougham’s Committee on the Education of the Lower Orders of the Metropolis collected valuable evidence as to the state of education in London. The first report of this committee, published in 1816, stated that ‘a very large proportion of children are wholly without the means of instruction, although their parents appear to be generally very desirous of obtaining that advantage for them.’ William Allen, in his evidence before the Committee given on June 3rd, 1816, estimated that there were 100,000 poor children in the Metropolis without the means of education. There can be no doubt that the Committee were justified in their opinion that ‘the greatest advantages would result to this country from Parliament taking proper measures, in concurrence with the prevailing disposition of the community, for supplying the deficiency of the means of instruction which exists at present, and for extending this blessing to the poor of all descriptions.’ But nothing was done until 1833, when Parliament

made a grant of 20,000*l.* to aid the building of schools by the two Societies. In 1889 a Committee of the Privy Council was appointed to supervise the distribution of these grants. In this modest way the work of the present Board of Education began.

THE PERIOD 1839-1870

It is necessary to pass rapidly over the years 1839-1870, years of vigorous discussion and inquiry and of bitter sectarian strife. On the nature of these discussions some light has already been thrown. There was the question of the relations which should subsist between the Church and the schools, the discussion of which is still in progress. The religious question in public education is indeed one of the few political questions which English statesmen have failed to solve after a hundred years of active discussion.

Many years passed before the right of the State to interfere in education in any real and effective way was conceded ; in their opposition to State interference, Churchmen and Nonconformists fought side by side. Then the question of compulsory education became urgent. It was realised that education would never be effective until compulsory measures were introduced, but it was not easy to reconcile the principle of compulsion with English ideas of liberty. The question of the finance of education—how the cost should be shared by the State, the locality, and the parents—presented serious difficulties, many of which are still unsolved.

Discussion was supplemented by exhaustive

inquiries into the educational systems of France, Germany, Holland, Switzerland, the United States and other countries. Matthew Arnold's Reports on education in several Continental countries, and Bishop Fraser's Report on education in the United States, are of special value and importance. The latter Report, which described the actual working of popular education authorities in the United States, was of great service to the draftsmen of the Education Bill of 1870. Though some progress was being made throughout the period both in regard to the number of children receiving instruction in elementary schools and the quality of the instruction provided in the schools, there was never any near approach to an efficient system of public elementary education. Thanks largely to the persistent and courageous work of Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth, the State grants to elementary schools increased rapidly, amounting in 1861 to the not inconsiderable sum of 813,441*l.* The average number of scholars in attendance at the same time was 855,077. This was the year in which Robert Lowe introduced his economical system of payment by result; in the next few years the grant decreased.

With the increase of Government grant there came of course an increase of Government control, which was exercised chiefly through Inspectors, many of them men of great attainments and enthusiasm for education. Matthew Arnold's work as an educationist has already been mentioned; he held the office of Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools for thirty-five years (1851-1886), with great benefit

both to the schools and the Education Department.

THE EDUCATION ACT OF 1870

With the Education Act of 1870, introduced by Mr. W. E. Forster, the Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education in Mr. Gladstone's Ministry of 1868, a new era opens. Legislative interference was indeed overdue. Mr. Forster stated that of those children who ought to be attending school, only about two-fifths of the children between the ages of six and ten, and one-third between the ages of ten and twelve, were actually on the school registers. The attendance of these children was irregular, and extended only over a short period. Those who went to school were imperfectly educated, and there was much absolute ignorance. He believed that the country demanded at least two things—that good schools should be supplied throughout the land, and that parents should be induced to send their children to them.

To a great extent the Act of 1870 satisfied these two demands. It introduced into English education a principle of first importance—the principle of rate-aid for education as distinct from State-aid. It was the means of establishing in every place in which the supply of schools was deficient a popularly-elected School Board, charged with the duty of ensuring that an elementary school was within the reach of every child. As regards religious instruction, it was enacted that no religious catechism or religious formulary distinctive

of any particular denomination should be taught in schools which received rate-aid.

The School Boards have recently been abolished, and it is therefore unnecessary to give details of their constitution and powers; but it must be said that they did magnificent work for English education in their day and generation. Such was the enthusiasm of many of the School Boards for the extension of education that they established a number of 'higher-grade schools,' in which the education provided was of a higher type than the statutory definition of elementary education permitted. This work of the School Boards undoubtedly helped to stimulate a popular demand for secondary education and to foster the democratic ideal in higher education. The fact that the famous 'Cockerton' decision of 1901 declared the work to be illegal is now of historical interest only. The Act of 1870 was supplemented in 1876 by an Act which introduced the principle of compulsory education, and in 1891 by an Act which had the effect of abolishing fees in a large number of schools at a cost to the State of nearly 2,000,000*l.* a year.

THE EDUCATION ACTS OF 1902 AND 1903

The higher standard of efficiency in elementary schools, which resulted from the establishment of School Boards, made the financial position of many voluntary schools untenable in spite of liberal and ever-increasing aid in various forms from Government. In the domain of secondary and higher education, the need of legislative action was pointed

out in the Report of the Bryce Commission of 1895, and became urgent after the 'Cockerton' decision.

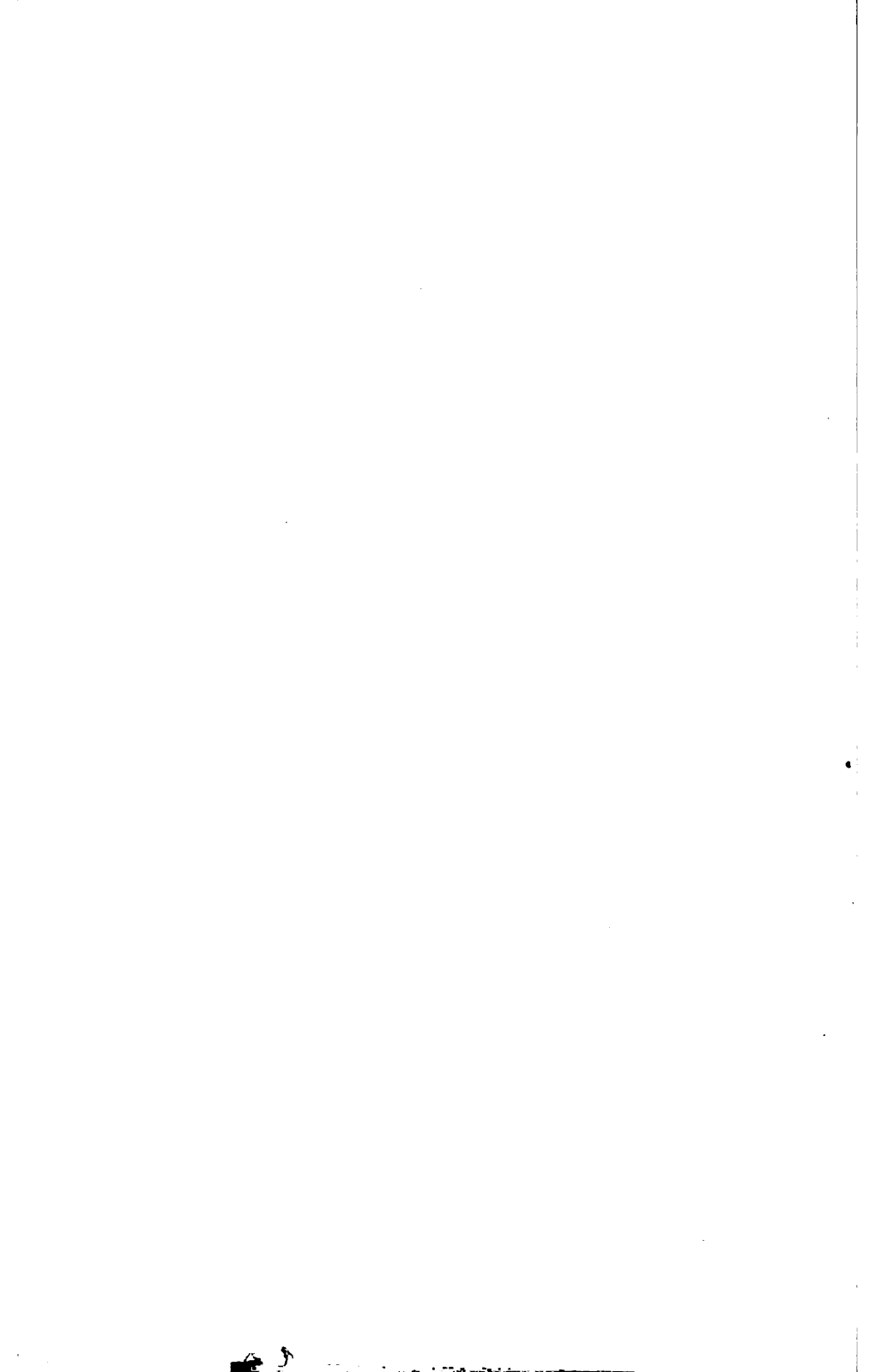
In 1902 Mr. Balfour's Education Act, and in 1903 a supplementary Act applying to London, were passed. These Acts abolished the School Boards, and constituted the County Councils and the Councils of County Boroughs the local education authorities for their areas, with powers of control or supervision over all education in their areas, except that the councils of the larger boroughs and urban districts were constituted local authorities for elementary education, with a limited power to aid higher education. Each such local education authority appoints an Education Committee, composed of members of the Councils and other persons interested in education in a proportion defined by scheme for each Education Committee. The duties of the local education authorities include the control of secular education in all elementary schools, whether voluntary schools or Council schools, and the supply or aiding of higher education. On August 1, 1907, there were 328 local education authorities established under the Acts, of which 62 were councils of administrative counties, 73 were county boroughs, 137 were autonomous municipal boroughs, 55 were urban districts, and one was for the Isles of Scilly.

The Act of 1902 has co-ordinated elementary and higher education, improved and developed the training of teachers, and raised the standard of efficiency in both elementary and secondary schools. Without, however, entering the field of current controversy, it may be said that the Act



[Hudson & Kearns, Photographers.

VIEW OF THE EXHIBIT OF THE MANCHESTER EDUCATION COMMITTEE IN THE BRITISH EDUCATION SECTION OF THE



did not find a final solution for all the many complex problems of educational politics of the time. The system established by the Act, under which the appointment of teachers of voluntary schools is vested in the managers of the schools while their salaries are paid by the local education authorities, has not worked well in practice, and the legitimate grievance of Nonconformists, which found expression in the discussions on the Bill, that in a large number of villages no religious teaching other than that in conformity with the tenets of the Church of England was provided for their children in the elementary schools, was left unremedied. In what way these and other defects of the Act of 1902 will be removed remains to be seen.

In 1906 and 1907 respectively legislative power was given to local authorities for the feeding of necessitous school children in England and Wales, and for the medical inspection of all children attending elementary schools.

STATISTICS

A glance may now be given to the more important statistics relating to education in England and Wales. In 1872 there were eighty-two Board schools and 9,772 voluntary schools, with accommodation for 2,296,000 children, or 9·95 per cent. of the population. In 1903 there were 5,965 provided schools (formerly called Board schools) and 14,208 non-provided schools (voluntary schools), with accommodation for 6,788,000 children, or 20·32 per cent. of the population. In 1861 there

were 855,077 children in average attendance. In 1870 there were 1,152,000 children in average attendance (5·21 per cent. of the population), and in 1903 there were 5,087,000 children in average attendance (15·09 per cent. of the population). The percentage of average attendance increased from 68·07 per cent. in 1870 to 84·30 per cent. in 1903. The number of teachers increased from 28,341 in 1870 to 157,287 in 1903. The latest volume of statistics for England and Wales published by the Board of Education shows that on August 1, 1906, there were 6,980 Council schools, accommodating 3,520,093 children, and 13,487 voluntary schools, accommodating 3,492,432 children, maintained by local education authorities. Of the 13,487 voluntary schools, 11,377 were attached to the Church of England, 345 were Wesleyan schools, 1,064 were Roman Catholic schools, twelve were Jewish schools, and 689 were undenominational or other schools. In the year 1905-06, 6,031,806 children were on the registers of these schools and 5,803,229 were in average attendance; the total number of teachers was 174,079. In 1906-07, the number of secondary schools recognised for grants was 768; in the previous year the number was 689, with 65,944 boys and 49,694 girls in attendance.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION

The limitations of space make it necessary to follow only the main current of educational progress. It has therefore been impossible to describe the remarkable development of Girls' education, which is associated with the names of Miss Buss

and Miss Beale, and the foundation of the Girls' Public Day School Trust; or to say anything of the University Extension movement, which originated at Cambridge in 1873 and has brought the benefits of higher education to the homes of the working classes; or of the improvements in infant education which have followed the study and application of Froebel's principles; or of the astonishing increase in recent years in the number and scope of evening continuation schools.

After the Act of 1870, the next great educational movement which engaged public attention had reference to Technical education. As in other educational movements, pioneers were at work long before any official encouragement was forthcoming. In 1800, Dr. Birkbeck started courses of science lectures for working men in Glasgow. The great Exhibition of 1851 stimulated activity in the teaching of science and art, and led to the establishment of a Government department to supervise the work, much of the credit for this happy result being due to the wisdom and enthusiasm of the Prince Consort. Science and Art classes were gradually established all over the country, taking the place of the old Mechanics' Institutes and Evening Schools for artizans and apprentices. It was not, however, till 1883 that the question of technical education was carefully and exhaustively investigated by a Royal Commission. The important report of the Commission did not lead immediately to legislation. Year after year, abortive attempts were made to give legislative sanction to some of the recommendations of the Commission.

In 1889 a Technical Education Bill was introduced by the Government and passed its second reading ; but opposition arose, and this Bill, like its predecessors, was numbered among the 'slaughtered innocents.' Late in the session, however, Sir William Mather submitted to Sir William Hart Dyke—who, as the Minister representing education, had charge of the Bill—certain amendments, on the acceptance of which he undertook to secure the active support of some members of the Opposition for the passing of the Bill. To these amendments Sir W. Hart Dyke obtained the assent of Lord Salisbury, with the result that the Bill was resuscitated ; but it did not get into Committee till within the last three days of the session. With the co-operation of those members of the Opposition who agreed to support the Government the measure was passed through the Committee stage, after an all-night sitting, on the day before Parliament rose, and reached the House of Lords only just in time to be included among the Bills which received the Royal Assent.

The Act of 1889 gave to the local authorities powers to supply or aid in supplying technical or manual instruction. In the following session, at the suggestion of Mr. Arthur Acland, a large annual grant amounting to upwards of three-quarters of a million—commonly known as 'whiskey' money by reason of its origin from customs and excise duties—was allowed to local authorities, with power to devote it, in whole or in part, to the encouragement of technical education.

The results of the Act of 1889 and the grant of 1890 were soon apparent. A large number of technical institutes and science classes were established, and the science work of secondary schools was subsidised and encouraged. No doubt some of the money was wasted at the time, but the institutions founded in those early days are now attaining a higher degree of efficiency and achieving a fuller measure of usefulness. Since 1902, in accordance with the Education Act of that year, the 'whiskey' money has been wholly devoted to the development of higher education.

ENGLISH UNIVERSITIES

The system of elementary and secondary education in England and Wales, the development of which has been imperfectly sketched, is completed by a system of Universities, Agricultural and Veterinary Colleges, Medical Schools, Training Colleges for Teachers, Art and Music Schools, which can claim to be fairly complete. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, formed on the model of Paris, were firmly established in the first half of the thirteenth century. Six centuries elapsed before the need for new Universities began to be felt. In 1881 the University of Durham was founded with funds provided by the corporate revenues of the Dean and Chapter of Durham Cathedral. The Armstrong College and the College of Medicine at Newcastle-on-Tyne are now associated with Durham University.

The impulse for the foundation of the University of London in 1836 came mainly from the exclusion

of Nonconformists from the privileges of the older Universities. In its first form, the University of London was the examining body for the students of the two great London colleges, University College and King's College, founded a few years before the University. The examining work of the University developed rapidly when the requirement of attendance at an approved college for students entering for degrees was removed. The need for the co-ordination of higher education in London led to the re-constitution of the University in 1900.

In the second half of the nineteenth century, the demand in the large centres of population for education of University type led to the establishment of a large number of new University colleges. These include the Owens College, Manchester (1851), which is now the Victoria University of Manchester (founded in 1880 with three constituent colleges); University College, Liverpool (1882), which became the University of Liverpool in 1908; Yorkshire College, Leeds (1874), which became the University of Leeds in 1904; Mason College, Birmingham (1880), which became the University of Birmingham in 1900; and Firth College, Sheffield, which became the University of Sheffield in 1905. There are University colleges at Bristol, Nottingham, Southampton, and Reading.

WALES, SCOTLAND, AND IRELAND

The system of elementary education in Wales is at present in all respects similar to the English system. The two systems have grown side by side, and the educational statistics already quoted

include those for Wales. In the field of secondary education, Wales can take credit for a remarkable and successful experiment in establishing secondary schools. Owing to the small number of endowed schools in Wales and the enthusiasm of the Welsh people for education, the need for development of secondary education received attention in Wales earlier than in England. The story of the establishment of the county schools in Wales after the Welsh Intermediate Education Act of 1889 is indeed one of the most inspiring in the annals of British education. There are now 95 of these schools, under the control of a Central Board, 18 for boys, 21 for girls, 47 dual schools, and 9 mixed schools. The University of Wales, of which the colleges at Aberystwyth, Bangor and Cardiff are constituent colleges, was founded in 1898. St. David's College, Lampeter, founded in 1827, has the privilege of granting the degrees of B.A. and B.D.

The educational systems of Scotland and Ireland are entirely different in origin and character from the English system. Scotland has always set an example to England in her zeal for education. Even before the Reformation there was a system of parish schools in Scotland, and so early as 1696 an Act was passed in the Scottish Parliament for the establishment of a system of national education, under which the duty of providing schools was imposed on the landowners. It is interesting to recall that in the preamble to Whitbread's Bill of 1807, to which reference has been made, the success achieved by education in

Scotland in raising the standard of civilisation in that country was put forward as one of the chief reasons for the establishment of parish schools in England. In her secondary and technical schools and her four Universities (St. Andrews founded in 1411, Glasgow in 1450, Aberdeen in 1494, Edinburgh in 1582), Scotland has educational resources which are certainly not relatively inferior to those possessed by England.

Education in Ireland has a sadder history. Ireland had the use of letters long before England, and to Ireland, a trustworthy authority has said, England chiefly owed her knowledge. But for reasons for which England, it is to be feared, was to blame, Ireland was never able to profit by its start in the educational race. For centuries the work of education in Ireland was closely associated with proselytising. Since 1831, when the Board of Commissioners of National Education in Ireland was established, the educational system has been more in consonance with the desires of the Irish people; but it is generally admitted that the present system of elementary education in Ireland is in need of reform. In recent years considerable progress has been made in the encouragement of scientific education in Irish schools by means of grants administered by the Board of Agriculture and Technical Instruction. Belfast has built a large and finely-equipped Technical School of the best character. Dublin University, founded in 1591, and the Royal University of Ireland, founded in 1880 as an examining body, are at present the only Universities in Ireland; but a Bill for the

establishment of two new Universities (in Dublin and Belfast), and involving the abolition of the Royal University of Ireland, has been submitted to Parliament, and there is a good prospect of its becoming law in the near future.

FINANCE

A few words may be said, in conclusion, on the finance of this great educational system. The estimates now before Parliament provide for a total grant of 17,578,280*l.* for education in Great Britain and Ireland, excluding the grant for technical instruction known as the 'whiskey' money. Of this the English Board of Education takes 18,594,150*l.*; Universities and University colleges in Great Britain take 196,000*l.*; intermediate education in Wales takes 25,800*l.*; Scotland takes 2,048,557*l.*; and Ireland 1,430,818*l.* for public education; endowed schools and Queen's Colleges in Ireland take 5,615*l.* The remainder is devoted to museums and picture galleries and similar objects.

Of the amount granted to the English Board of Education, 11,195,375*l.* will be devoted to elementary schools, 500,000*l.* to training colleges for teachers, 802,700*l.* to secondary schools and the education of pupil-teachers, and 517,670*l.* to technical, art, and evening schools.

In 1905-06, 9,229,952*l.* was raised for education by means of local rates in England and Wales. The other main source of income for British education is derived from endowments, fees of students

in secondary schools and colleges, and voluntary contributions.

The enormous increase in the cost of public elementary education during recent years is indicated by a comparison of the foregoing figures with the following for the year 1871 :—Government Grants, 927,524*l.* ; rates, 71,184*l.* ; voluntary subscriptions and endowments, 509,262*l.* ; fees of scholars, 546,421*l.* ; School Board loans for building purposes, 600*l.* ; estimated average annual subscriptions for voluntary school buildings, 441,201*l.* ; giving a total income for 1871 of about 2,000,000*l.* It is well within the mark to estimate that since 1871 the cost of elementary education in England and Wales has increased tenfold.

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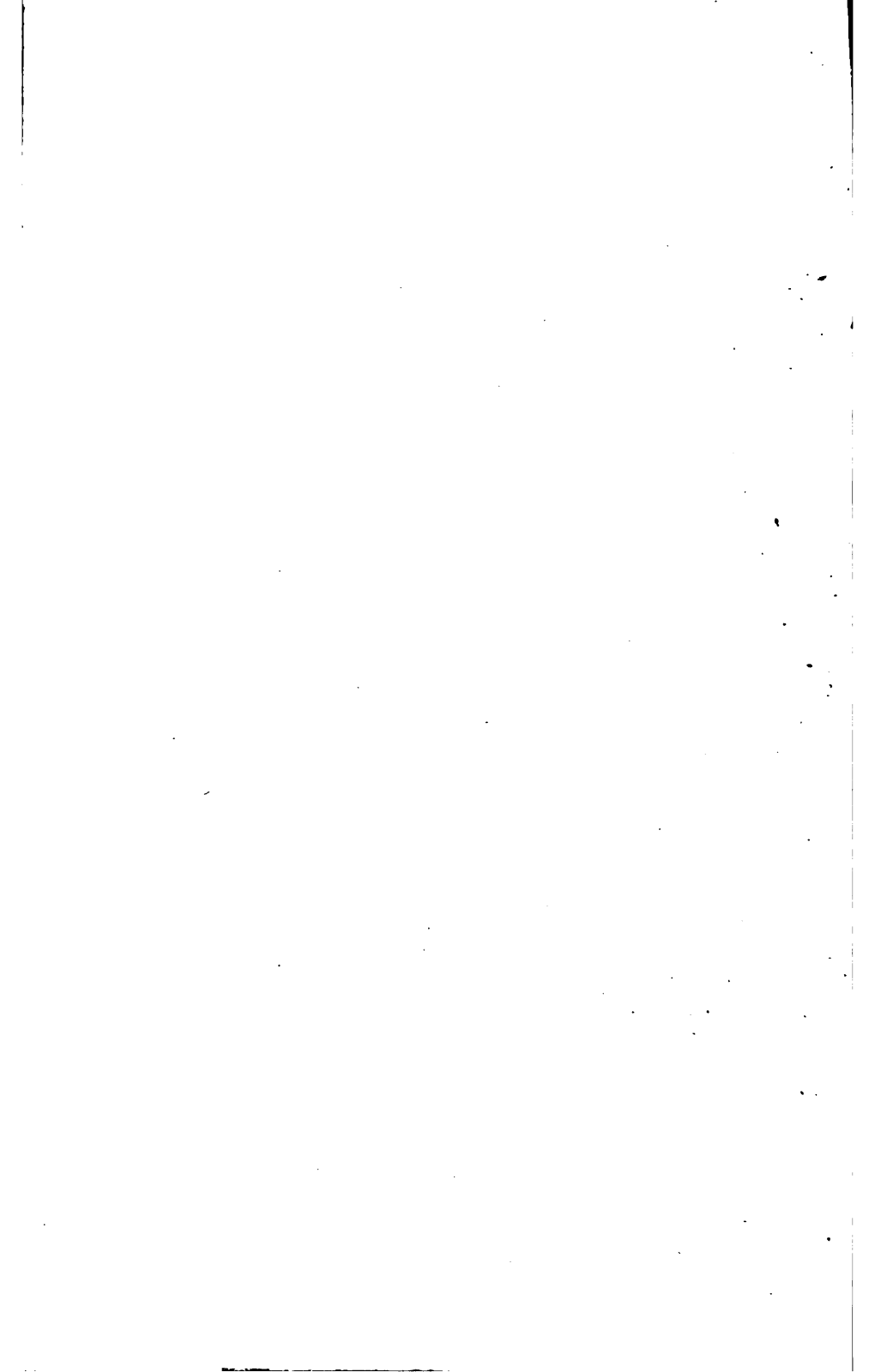
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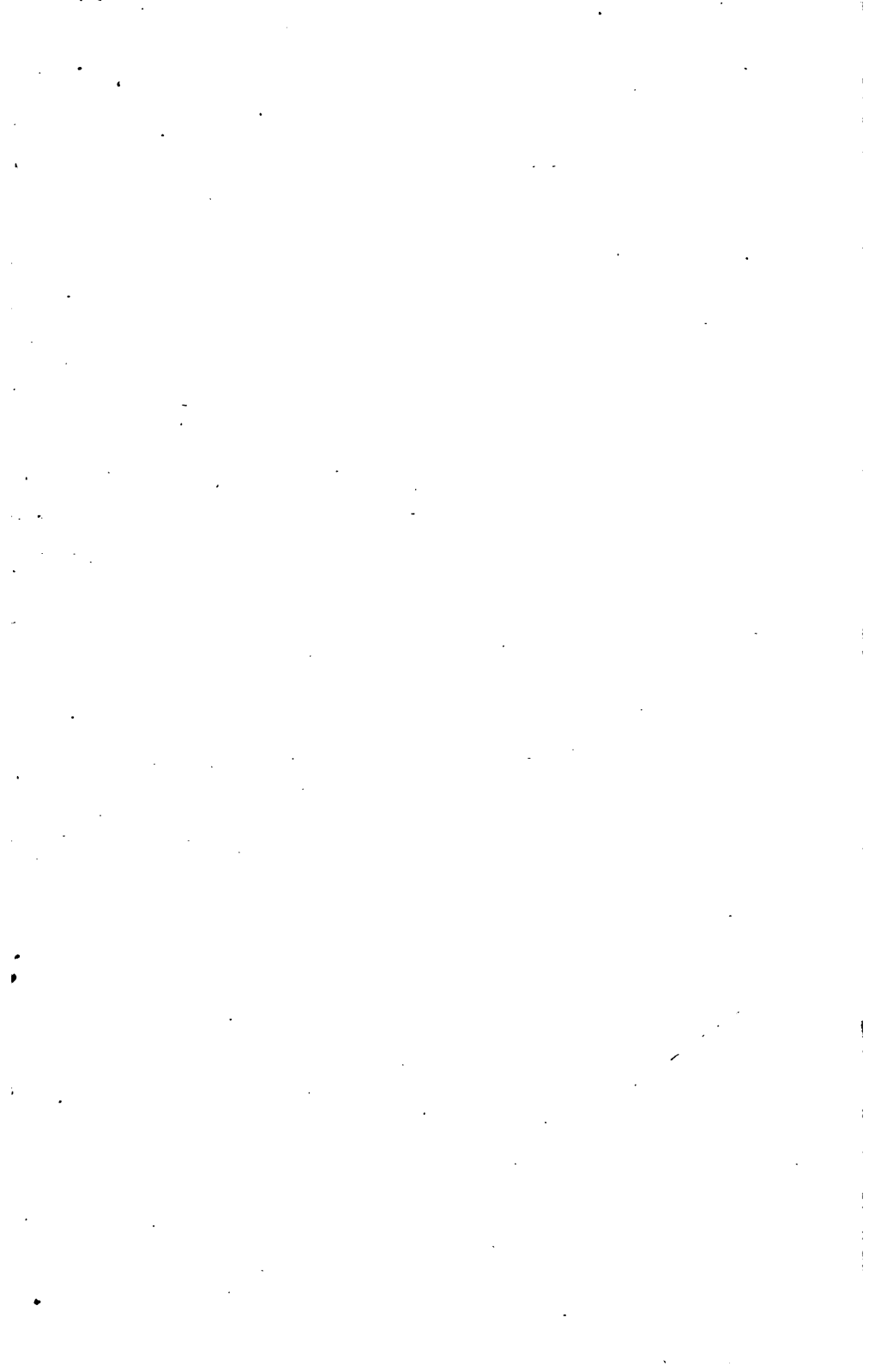
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